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The Development and Diversity of Asian Tourism in Europe: The case of Vienna

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ABSTRACT: Tourists from Asia offer a promising alternative target for some of the traditional European tourist markets that have stagnated owing to the economic crisis. The number of Asian tourist arrivals in Austria's capital city Vienna has increased dramatically, as double-digit growth rates of recent years demonstrate. A remarkable recovery of the Japanese market as well as an exponential growth of the Chinese and South Korean markets, in addition to the high spending power of Thai tourists, have created a highly positive scenario for the tourism industry in Austria. This paper uses Vienna as a case study to exemplify the rise of Asian tourism in Europe. Tourism statistics, media reports, and materials of destination marketing organizations were analyzed to provide an evaluation of trends and growth of Asian outbound tourism to Vienna. The authors argue that the sophistication of tourist consumption of European cultural attractions is in line with stages of socio-economic and political development of Asian countries, and that travel patterns significantly differ within the Asian market.

Keywords: Social distinction; socio-economic development; Asian tourism; cultural tourism; Europe.

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Introduction

The Asia Pacific region has a population of nearly two billion people and is home to numerous important economies, such as Japan, China, and South Korea. Europe has become an increasingly important destination for Asian travelers. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2011), by the year 2020, one of every three visitors to Europe will be East Asian. In Austria, travelers from the Asia Pacific region accounted for 21.8% of the tourist arrivals in 2011 (Statistik Austria, 2013). Recently, Austrian tourism has seen an impressive growth of tourist arrivals from the region: 12.6% in 2010–2011, which is nearly triple the average growth of the traditional tourist arrivals from Europe. The Asian market is becoming increasingly significant for Austrian tourism in general and for Vienna's tourism in particular, especially in the context of the ongoing economic crisis in Europe. The rise in the number of tourists from Asia not only reflects the economic importance of this market but also signals the socio-economic development of Asian societies.

The current research aims to advance tourism literature by establishing a connection between stages of socio-economic development of the Asia Pacific to the increase in outbound tourists from Asia to Europe. In particular, the study explores Asian tourists of the new middle class in light of the theory of taste (Bourdieu, 1984), and analyzes the connection between economic development and expansion of outbound travel (Burton, 1995).

Although previous work in tourism has applied Bourdieu's theory to the consumption of cultural attractions from the destination perspective (Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Munt, 1994; Richards, 1996; 2001; Urry, 2002), researchers have made limited investigations of tourist motivation for social privilege through consumption of culture. In particular, research applying Burton's (1995) stages of economic development and tourist flow (Weaver & Lawton, 2009) in the context of Asian outbound travel to Europe is needed to examine the proposition that the level of economic and social development as antecedent for culture consumption. Departing from a theoretical standpoint of viewing tourism as a way to consume culture in an aspiration for social distinction and indication of economic development, this research uses the case of Vienna to study Asian travelers' patterns of cultural consumption. By analyzing the data of Asian tourists to Vienna, the study aims to answer a broad research question: "Is the consumption of European cultural tourism an indicator of Asian socio-economic development and a strategy for social distinction?"

Literature Review

Socio-economic Development and the Rise of Outbound Tourism of the New Middle Class in the Asia Pacific

The newly affluent people across the Asia Pacific region are frequently referred to as “the new middle class” (Pinches, 1999). The term “middle class” emerged during the Industrial Revolution in Europe and refers to people who were “neither lord nor peasant,” but who were “well off” and living comfortable lifestyles (Wallerstein, 1988). It can be used interchangeably with *bourgeoisie*, who “would not be king or laborer, but he or she might be a state official, a man or woman of letters, a professional, merchant, banker, industrialist or academic” (Pilbeam, 1990, p. 3). In parts of Asia, a relatively wealthy social group that has emerged during the post-war economic development is labeled as the “new rich” or *nouveaux riche* (Chan, 2000). The new middle class in Asia appears in Japan, South Korea, and China. In more affluent Southeast Asian nations like Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand, and the Philippines, often known as ASEAN 5, this new middle class forms a new pattern of consumption.

Industrialization and economic transformation in Northeast and Southeast Asia followed different pathways and timelines. Prior to the 1950s, modernization during the Meiji era of the late 19th and early 20th centuries had created sizable middle class in Japan, while colonial modernity in the early 20th century produced Western-educated professionals, officials, intellectuals, and merchants (Hedrick-Wong, 2007). Following Japan, South Korea has industrialized and grown rapidly over the last four decades, rising from poverty to rank among the world’s leading economic powerhouses. The middle class in China, however, has experienced a different path to affluence. Under the policy of nationalization of private enterprises, the *bourgeoisie* were eradicated by the mid-1950s. The revitalization of the private sector in China occurred only recently, in the late 1990s, and enabled a new generation of *bourgeoisie* emerge into the new economy. After half a century of suppression of private wealth and enterprise, fundamentally they are *nouveaux riche*, having wealth for the first time (Hedrick-Wong, 2007). In Southeast Asia, the creation of a middle class in Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia, and the Philippines has taken place within a different political and social structure. Singapore enjoys the highest income level in the ASEAN 5, whereas Indonesia and the Philippines are much less affluent (Shiraishi, 2006). Thailand’s middle class is a product of a long

period of economic development, especially the great boom of 1986–1996, sparked by the relocation of industry from North East Asia. In Malaysia, the middle class is a product of regional economic development in the boom years from 1986 to 1997.

Affluence is one of the most important economic factors associated with increased tourism demand. The distribution and volume of tourism increases as a society become more economically developed and greater household income becomes available. Burton (1995) suggests a model of tourism participation consisting of four phases of economic development, from pre-industrialized to industrializing, almost industrialized, and fully industrialized. In countries in phases one and two, most tourists are among the elite (both economically and socially) and travel domestically and on short-haul international travel, for example to Europe. By phase three, the bulk of the population is relatively affluent, leading to increased mass travel both domestically and internationally to nearby countries. The more affluent class meanwhile engages in long-haul travel. Finally, phase four represents a fully developed country with widespread affluence, and subsequent mass international and domestic travel to a diverse array of both short-haul and long-haul destinations.

Weaver and Lawton (2009) further develop Burton's argument for tourism participation in accordance with economic development and propose four waves of tourist flow between the developed and developing world. The first wave of flow is between developed countries—those in phase four of economic development, such as tourist flow between Japan and Europe. The second wave is the flow of tourists from developed to developing countries, such as from Japan to Southeast Asia. The third wave is tourists engaging in travel within their regions, as in the case of Chinese traveling to Southeast Asia. The fourth wave of tourists is from developing to developed countries. For example, Chinese tourists' travel to Europe can be classified as belonging to the fourth wave.

The stages of outbound tourism development in the Asia Pacific region exemplify the arguments of Burton (1995) and Weaver and Lawton (2009), in that the presence of the new and expanded middle class is reflected in education, occupation, and consumption of commodities, such as travel. The travel styles and motivations of Asian tourists also reflect a trend in contemporary Asia (Cohen, 2004), with tourism and leisure developments proceeding in distinctive ways.

Chronologically, Japanese outbound travel began in the 1960s and 1970s, about a decade earlier than other Asian nations (Yamaguchi, 2010). Growing

segments of Japanese outbound travel are senior travelers (50+) and female white collar workers known as “office ladies” (Japan Tourism Marketing, 2006), who are under 35, which is rather unusual (Imanishi, 2007). Graburn (1983) notes that the Japanese group orientation stems from the influential role of various social groups at home, and is aligned with the interdependent notion of self in Asian culture (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). For the Japanese, Western Europe exemplifies Western cosmopolitanism, and Western languages and culture are considered prestigious (Kelsky, 2001; Seargeant, 2005).

Following Japan, South Korea has industrialized and grown rapidly over the last four decades and has risen to rank among the world’s leading economic powerhouses. The South Korean economy has grown dramatically, resulting in rapid growth in overseas travel among Koreans. Especially for young Koreans, going abroad during vacations or undertaking language training in foreign countries, has become almost a “must-do” activity, especially among university students, with funds obtained from affluent parents or with savings from private tutorship (Kim, 2000).

While the development of Japan has stagnated since the late 1990s and the number of outbound trips is declining, the trend toward travel is strongly evident in China. “Chinese seem to be everywhere, yet the Chinese boom is just only beginning” (*Economist*, 2011 cited in Arlt, 2013). Chinese tourists are largely urban-based and are among the chief beneficiaries of China’s recent socio-economic development (Lim, 2009). Chinese tourists often travel to cities in Europe, such as Rome, Paris, Vienna, Amsterdam, and Frankfurt, looking for monuments rather than experiences (Arlt, 2013). Up to 80% of Chinese outbound tourists prefer package tours, rushing through Europe on a 14-day, 12-country, 10-city excursion led by a tour guide, with many travelers being elderly, inexperienced tourists who see this trip as a once-in-a-lifetime experience (Fugmann & Aceves, 2013).

Since 2012, the Chinese have become the world’s highest spending tourists, spending U.S.\$102 billion and outstripping travelers from both Germany and the United States (World Tourism Organization, 2013). As “investment” in personal prestige within the group and in self-esteem is a driving force for Chinese tourists (Arlt, 2013), travel and shopping are not simply activities undertaken for pleasure, but serve as a means of improving social status. While some countries in Europe, such as Germany, have formed a Chinese Outbound Tourism Institute to do extensive research about Chinese tourists, Austria has not taken a similar action. Recent surveys and information on Asian tourists in Austria are limited to the Japanese (Manova, 2008), and do not present any

details concerning travel preference and behavior of other important markets from Asia.

Tourism and Social Distinction

The consumption of leisure and tourism provides an opportunity for social differentiation (Featherstone, 2007), as personal values determine the travel decision and destination (Pitts & Woodside, 1986) may not only have important symbolic meaning but also play an increasingly significant role in defining social distinction (Featherstone, 1987). In industrialized Asia today, the social standing of the new rich is measured largely by their level of material wealth. Taste and style clearly matter to the new rich in Asia. The new Asian middle class acquires prestige in light of Bourdieu's theory of social distinction.

Bourdieu (1984) conceptualizes non-economic assets as falling into three categories: cultural capital, social capital, and symbolic capital. According to Bourdieu (1984), social class depends on three factors: the volume of capital attained, the balance between different forms of capital, and how these relationships change over time. Bourdieu (1986) points to conversions and transformations of capital, highlighting that one form of capital is translatable into others. Cultural capital brings advantages to its holders in that it can be "converted" into social capital (social contacts and networks), symbolic capital (recognition), and economic capital (financial capital). However, to achieve cultural or symbolical capital by means of international travel, the traveler's economic assets must be at a certain level.

The new rich in Asia work at acquiring cultural, social, and symbolic capital in a number of ways, one of which is through formal education for themselves and their children (Kim, 2000). Moreover, in addition to embodied cultural capital (e.g., proficiency in English), economic capital (e.g. a new car) provides a yardstick whereby Asians evaluate their social distance from others (Chan, 2000). Thus their accumulation of various forms of cultural capital translates to greater symbolic capital in form of prestige and status. As many new rich cultivate their tastes through travel, the increasing numbers of Asian long-haul travelers to Europe reflect not only Asian economic power but also a motivation to seek social status.

Furthermore, until recently, most research using Bourdieu's theory has taken place in the industrialized countries of Western Europe and North America (Ustuner & Holt, 2010), and researchers have suggested that Bourdieu's status consumption theory, which was developed on the basis of

Western research, should be validated in a different cultural context (Sin, 2009). This study, therefore, analyzes the arrivals of Asian tourists in European destinations with a case study of Vienna, and responds to the call for empirical investigations of Bourdieu's theory to "specify the socio-historical particularities of the population of interest" (Holt, 1997, p. 109). The authors of this study are also aware of the ongoing growth and complexity of Asian tourism that demands a reappraisal of how tourism is analyzed and conceptualized (Winter, Teo, & Chang, 2009).

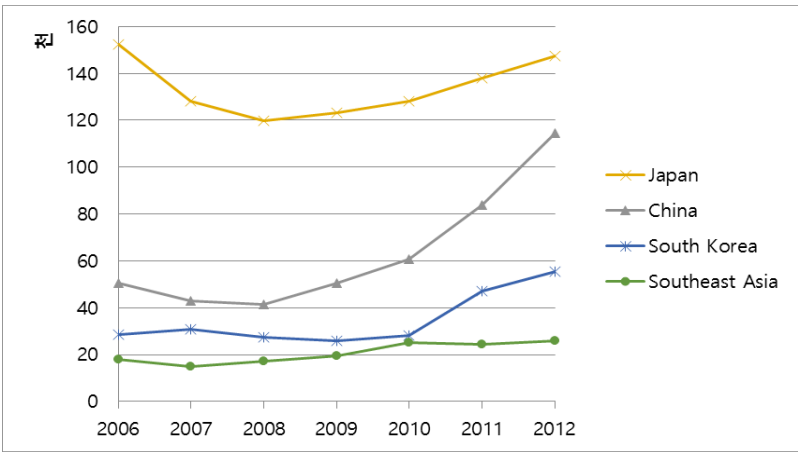
The Case of Vienna

The current research employed a case study method. The case study is an empirical inquiry investigating a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context (Yin, 2009). Vienna was selected for analysis because it is the capital city and the most popular destination in Austria for Asian tourists, as well as a leading travel destination in Europe. The data for the case study were drawn from secondary sources such as Destination Marketing Organization (DMO) documentation (materials, media reports and literature) and archival records (tourism statistics).

Vienna is Austria's top tourist destination, featuring many tangible and intangible attractions. In the last decade, the city promoted the "five Viennas" as a unique selling proposition at the core of its marketing strategy (Schlögl, 2011, p. 159). These five pillars are Vienna as (1) a world city of music and art, (2) an imperial city, (3) a city of gourmets, (4) a green and sporty city, and finally (5) a conference city. Vienna has distinguished itself from other cities in Europe by emphasizing its foremost attractiveness in music and arts. Austria has been known internationally for its renowned composers, such as Mozart, Haydn, and Strauss, as well as for the New Year Concert, which is broadcast worldwide, and the movie *The Sound of Music*, which is among the most famous music movies in Asia (Im & Chon, 2008). Vienna is also well known for high-quality operas and art museums.

The *Wiener Tourismusverband* (Vienna Tourist Board) is the official destination marketing organization for Vienna. It is responsible for all matters related to tourism, such as measures to increase the volume of incoming tourism, advertising, and support of any tourism measures instigated by the municipality. Moreover, the organization supports the creation of a modern infrastructure for the tourist industry and promotes the general public's

understanding of the industry and its economic significance (Vienna Tourist Board, 2013). This non-profit organization cooperates closely with Vienna’s tourism industry in destination marketing and posts information on its website in 13 different languages, including Japanese and Chinese (Mandarin). To support the tourism industry, the website focuses on business-to-business marketing, providing data sheets about the markets of Southeast Asia as well as country profiles for China, Japan, and South Korea. This information is published in German and is limited to indicators such as preferred accommodation by category, seasonality, and visitor numbers of the last 15–20 years. The Asian tourist profiles published on the website provide an overview of the guest profile, travel behavior, and satisfaction levels of the Japanese (Manova, 2008) but not of other Asian markets.



Source: Vienna Tourist Board 2013

Figure 1. Tourist arrivals to Vienna (2006 – 2012)

The East and Southeast Asian markets are highly valuable for Vienna tourism and had an impressive growth of 26% in 2011 (Figure 1). The largest share of Asian travelers (28.4%) came from Japan, one of the top ten markets for Vienna tourism (Statistik Austria, 2013) since 1993 (Vienna Tourism Board, 2014b). The number of arrivals from Japan reached 147,161 in 2012, experiencing the greatest growth (11.7%) in the last ten years. The number of tourist arrivals from China has also experienced impressive growth, from 15.5% (2008–2009) and 27.6% (2009–2010) to 32.2% (2010–2011) and 39.5% (2011–2012), reaching a level of 114,454 tourists in 2011 (Statistik Austria,

2013). The Chinese may soon surpass the Japanese as the most important Asian market. Leading the rise of the Asian market, South Korea had the highest ever growth rate of 58.5% in 2010–2011 and a 21.8% increase in the number of arrivals in Vienna in 2011–2012. Similarly, Southeast Asian markets have grown at the pace of 10% since 2008, with 44,205 travelers in 2012. The purchasing power of the Asian market is also surprisingly high. Global Blue reports that the two biggest spenders per purchase are tourists from Thailand (€676/purchase) and China (€606). In contrast, tourists from Switzerland spend €223 per purchase (ORF, 2012).

There is great diversity among the Asian market segments related to the stage of economic and political developments, and the liberalization of outbound travel (Bui, Wilkins & Lee, 2013). Japanese outbound travel was liberalized in 1963, followed by South Korea in 1988 and China in the late 1990s. Vienna's DMO started to officially promote the capital city to Japanese tourists in the mid-1970s, to Chinese tourists in the mid-1990s and more thoroughly since 2004, and to South Korean in the mid-1990s but more thoroughly only since 2014 (Vienna Tourist Board, 2014c). However, national tourism markets have undergone processes of diversification and segmentation, thus each country may represent various specific types of tourists.

The Japanese tourists stay for more than two nights in Vienna, the longest among Asian tourist market. With an 11.7% increase in number of tourists in 2012, the Japanese market shows a trend of recovery after a continuous decline since 2006, and the spending of the Japanese increased by 13.5% in 2011 and 19.8% in 2012. The Japanese are in the top ten markets of in terms of visitors to Vienna, and in 2012 ranked fifth among the top ten spenders, with an average spending of €347 per purchase. Vienna Tourist Board (2014b) especially targets Japanese travelers from the urban and suburban regions of Tokyo, Osaka, and Nagoya and sees the greatest potential in the following demographic groups: (1) the young travel generation aged 20–29 with high formal education, (2) the age group of 40–65 with high education and mid- to high income, and (3) the age group of 60–69 with high education and high income. Since 2004, the Vienna Tourist Board has conducted surveys of international tourists, and Japan is the only Asian market included in this list (Manova, 2008). Japanese tourists represent a relatively old group, with an average age of 45.5 (25% between 40–49 and 41% above 50). They are highly educated, with 77% having university/college degrees, and have a higher income, with 55% having a monthly income above €3,500. Within the Asian market, Japanese tourists stay longer than other groups, featuring an average

length of stay of 2.1 nights (Vienna Tourist Board, 2014c). Most Japanese came to Vienna on package tours (75%), and 90% of Japanese prefer cultural attractions. One of the few recent surveys of Japanese tourists confirms that Vienna holds an iconic image as the city of classical music, and 79% of visitors from Japan attend a classical music event compared to only 28% of all other international markets (Manova, 2008). Japanese travelers to Austria are mainly long-term bookers through travel agencies, and consider security to be important (Vienna Tourist Board, 2014b).

The growing market of Chinese travelers needs to be addressed as early as possible, as the increase by nearly 40% between 2011–2012 marks a booming trend of Chinese tourists to Vienna. According to statistics by Vienna Tourist Board (2014c), while Chinese tourists stay relatively short (1.7 nights on average), 42% stayed in four-star hotels, 23% chose three-star hotels, and about 19% stayed in five-star hotels. The relatively short stay of this market might reflect the fact that typical Chinese travels in Europe consist of coach tours, which often include intra-European flights in order to be able to visit several countries and cities of the continent (Arlt, 2006). Vienna features in most European package tours, which 90% of Chinese tourists book through travel agencies (Vienna Tourist Board 2014a). However, fully independent travel (FIT), which is nevertheless customized by a travel professional, is slowly increasing.

Chinese tourist spending in Vienna increased by 48% each year in 2011 and 2012, holding second place among shopping tourists (after Thai travelers) with an average of €623 per purchase (Kurier, 2013). Many purchased items are luxury brands, such as Gucci, Luis Vuitton, or Channel. Their shopping preference is also relative to the iconic products of each country, such as perfume in France and Swarovski crystals in Austria. Vienna's DMO targets tourist groups between 25 and 50 years, with mid- to high income and education, coming from urban and suburban Shanghai, Peking, Guangzhou, and Sichuan province (Vienna Tourist Board, 2014a). Tourists from China and Southeast Asia require a Schengen visa.

While the growth dynamics of the Chinese market in the boom period should not be ignored, the rise of other market segments from Asia is worth noticing. Leading the rise of the Asian markets, South Korea recorded the highest ever growth rate of 58.5% in 2010-2011. The dramatic growing trend continues in 2012 (21.8%) and 2013 (24.4%) and improves the ranking of this market from 41 in 1999 to 21 in 2013 reaching 72,000 visitors. The impressive growth rate of the South Korean market to Vienna in the first half of the year

2014 leads Vienna Tourism Board (2014c) to select this market for target systematic marketing campaign in Seoul in fall 2014. The length of stay of the South Korean tourist is similar to Chinese, at the average of 1.7 nights. However, the choice of hotel range is far different from both Japanese and Chinese markets. The largest proportion of tourists from South Korea stayed in budget hostels (34.9%), 29.7% of visitors prefer four star hotels and 27.1% chose to stay in three-star hotels. Only 3.8% of South Korean tourist decided to stay in five-star hotels (Vienna Tourist Board, 2014c). This option of accommodation might reflect the fact that the South Korean visitors to Vienna are dominated by young travelers, who travel to explore European culture or for overseas education as Kim (2000) has identified.

Similarly to South Korea, Southeast Asian markets have been growing at the pace of 10% since 2008, heading 33% in 2010 – 2011 with 44,205 travelers in 2012 (Vienna Tourist Board, 2013). The purchasing power of the Asian market is also surprisingly high. The two biggest spenders per purchase are tourists from Thailand (€676/purchase) and China (€623), while tourists from Switzerland, for example, only spend €223 (Kurier, 2013). Both Japanese and South Korean markets are among the top ten spenders, however, the average purchase of tourists from these two countries amounts to €347 and €311 respectively.

In summary, an increasing number of long-haul travelers to Europe reflects Asian economic and social development. A motivating factor for Asian tourists can be prestige, the notion of enhancing one's own social status by demonstrating international travel experience, but one has to keep in mind that an emerging middle class from China, South Korea, and parts of Southeast Asia has just about started to travel overseas in greater numbers. Differently, long-haul travel liberalization initiated from Japan dates back in late 1960s and Japan overseas travel to Europe has more than 50 years of establishment. The level of socioeconomic development of the respective countries can provide some explanations for the discrepancy in the findings in relation to their travel behavior and consumption of tourism products.

Discussion and Implications

The dramatic recovery of the Japanese market, the exponential growth of the Chinese and South Korean markets, and the high spending power of Thai tourist have created a highly positive scenario for the tourism industry in

Vienna, especially as mature and well developed markets, such as the Austrian market, must assertively address new target groups (Pikkemaat, 2004). Asian tourists, especially the Chinese, will continue to travel to main tourism destinations, but they are developing increasingly higher expectations of being treated according to their preferences (Arlt, 2006).

Until recently, the Japanese market has been considered as the major segment from Asia. Therefore, tourism services, facilities, and systems have catered mainly to the needs of this market. The earlier economic development compared to other Asian markets and the socio-cultural distinctiveness of this travel market has led to the widely held assumption that the Japanese represent the whole Asian market. While the significant growth of the Chinese, South Korean, and Southeast Asian markets has been noticed, not much effort has been made to understand and satisfy the needs of these emerging segments. However, neglecting the diversity of Asian markets may significantly hinder the effect of destination promotion by European DMOs to these markets.

This study acknowledges that different factors motivate Japanese, Chinese, South Korean and Thai traveling to Vienna. Members of the affluent middle class of Japan travel to experience the distinctive features of Vienna—for accumulation of cultural capital, in Bourdieu's (1984) terms. In contrast, the travel experience of the Chinese and Thai tourist is based on experience of place to be "collected," and the luxury items purchased are symbols of prosperity and high social status, "showing off" their outfits to keep "face." That is, Chinese and Thai travelers are seeking symbolic capital accumulation (Bourdieu, 1984). With the second wave of Chinese outbound tourism (Arlt, 2013), travel to Western Europe is perceived as a means of personal investment, in terms of both prestige and property. Vienna's focus on South Korean is rather a recent phenomenon, and positions the market in between Japanese and Chinese. Travelers from South Korea do not seek for status in terms of purchasing for symbolic capital, but by accumulation of cultural capital.

In addition, the liberalization of overseas travel and the economic development of East and Southeast Asia may help explain the discrepancy in the findings in relation to cultural consumption. First, the more developed the economy, the more affordable long-haul travel to Western Europe becomes. According to Burton's (1995) model, the Chinese have moved from stage two to stage three, while Japan has long been in stage four, and South Korean is in transition from stage three to stage four. The middle class from these countries has accumulated more discretionary income, making travel easier. In addition, economic development is also in line with the degree of openness to the West.

As the liberalization of international travel in Japan happened 30 years earlier than in China, the Western European destinations, including Vienna, have been attractive to Japanese for much longer. For the Chinese, travel to Europe has been liberalized for about 20 years, and many Chinese who can afford to travel are newly rich. Even though international travel has been liberalized in South Korea since the 1990s, the trend to travel to Europe has just recently taken off, but is expected to be very promising in the near future.

The results of the case study of Vienna have several implications for the tourism industry and destination marketing for the city. Firstly, for many years the misconception that Japanese tourists represent Asian tourists in general led to mistakes in product design and destination promotion. The diversity of the Asian markets in terms of consumption and perception should be taken into account to avoid serving other Asians, such as the Chinese, in the same way as the Japanese. Even though the Chinese and Japanese dominate the package tour offerings, the two market segments differ with respect to socio-demographic composition, preferences, motivation, and interest. The South Korean market is distinctive from both Japanese and Chinese travel by featuring more independent and small group travel.

Secondly, the booming Chinese market should be addressed as soon as possible, as the high speed of China's development calls for more attention from the destination marketing agents. Chinese tourists' strong motivation to acquire symbolic capital, the distinctive feature of the new rich, may require service providers to redesign their products.

Finally, the ongoing growth and complexity of Asian tourism demands a reappraisal of how tourism is analyzed and conceptualized (Winter *et al.*, 2009). To better reflect the global nature of tourism, a holistic approach to analyzing tourism phenomena should be emphasized. The analysis of tourists from Asia and their perception of a European destination require a comprehensive understanding of Asian cultures and societies and how the development of each society explains tourists' selection of the destination. Contributions of Asian researchers and European researchers who understand Asians would provide an insider perspective and strengthen the validity and relevance of the research interpretation.

Conclusion

This study analyzes the development and diversity among Asian tourists

and the appeal of Vienna to Asian tourists. The findings reveal the fragmentation and diversity of the Asian market. Taking the Japanese, Chinese and South Korean as focal points of analysis, the study provides evidence that tourists' patterns of consumption of culture depend on their home country's level of socio-economic development. Therefore, this study challenges the conventional approach of viewing the Asian market as homogenous. The ongoing growth and complexity of Asian tourism demands that tourism professionals tailor the aspects of the destination visit to the differing needs of diverse tourist segments from Asia.

The study contributes to tourism literature by highlighting the discrepancy between Asian tourists in the consumption of cultural products of Vienna. The level and patterns of culture consumption are determined by tourists' home-country level of economic development, which arguably influences not only tourists' disposable income but also their degree of liberalization and openness to the media and Western values.

Future research might conduct either qualitative or quantitative field studies with Asian tourists in Vienna to better understand the patterns of their behavior. Comparative examination of various destinations in Europe to Vienna might also be helpful to highlight the distinctive features of the two markets. Finally, an Asian perspective in tourism research is needed to develop a framework and research approach, and to provide more value and practice to the destination marketing agents.

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